

THE LITERARY WORLD.

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JULY 23, 1853.

LITERATURE.

OPENING OF THE CRYSTAL PALACE.

The Crystal Palace has opened at last, and though at a season of the year when the city is stripped of many of its notabilities, with sufficient *éclat*. In respect to the attendance of the distinguished company, nothing was wanting to the ceremonies of the fourteenth. The President of the United States, and a representation of his cabinet were there; the Governor of the State was there; the Earl of Ellesmere, and eminent official personages from abroad were there; the army was there, in its most illustrious living representatives, in the persons of General Scott, General Wool, and others; a bishop opened the ceremonies, with a brother bishop near him, and an archbishop of another denomination as close at hand, with untitled clergy, held in universal respect, thickly planted on the platform; education and the press were largely represented, while the mercantile element contributed its most noticeable quota, in a community like that of New York, to the brilliant scene. Among the miscellaneous groups were such marked personages as Father Gavazzi and Mr. Meagher.

The chief duty of the day was to honor the occasion,—and it was duly honored in the presence of the guests of the Association. We know not when more distinguished men or more beautiful women have been brought together.

The exercises of the day, for mid July, were wisely brief. They commenced with an eloquent prayer, breathing the spirit, and often uttering the letter of the liturgy of the English Church, distinctly pronounced by Bishop Wainwright. A copy of verses was then sung by the Sacred Music Society, when an address, containing frequent personal appeals to President Pierce, was delivered by the President of the Association, Theodore Sedgwick. It was not a set oration, nor a history of the enterprise. Mr. S. promised to set forth an account of the latter, with the aims and prospects of the undertaking, on some other and more suitable occasion. He pertinently alluded to the main outlines of the affair, claiming nothing more than he was justified in claiming, by the substantial success, to be measured by the eye of every one who listened to him. President Pierce replied briefly but earnestly, and the singing of a grand Hallelujah Chorus ended the proceedings,—when the guests were at liberty to inspect the different portions of the building.

The exhibition stands now only partly occupied—but enough was seen to justify the fullest expectation of the most ample success, when opportunity has been afforded for the various cases to be unpacked and displayed. We saw nowhere any effort, on the part of exhibitors, which was not an improvement on previous displays of the kind in this city, and in which good taste and the evident desire to do the best were not most liberally exhibited. It was easy to be perceived that this was no show of the mediocrities.

Among the articles especially worthy of mention are the Florentine mosaics, consisting of slabs for table-tops, of black and white marble, with flowers, fruits, &c., inlaid. They are fully equal to the best specimens to be found at Florence.

The *spécialité* of a sister city of Italy, the silver filigree work of Genoa, is well repre-

sented by a statuette of Columbus, formed, as it were, of woven silver.

Alderman Copeland's case of statuary Porcelain made a fine display. A copy of the Warwick vase formed one of its contents. A large collection of dinner and other services of china, from this and other manufacturers, displayed great beauty and variety. A fine display of painted china was also made in the French department.

Near the tables spread with china, were several specimens of tiling for floors, an article combining beauty and utility in a high degree.

A Parisian glove-maker presents a row of calf skins, the gradations of color in which are exquisite. A similar case of buckskins is equally beautiful.

Mr. Genin's case of furs is placed on the ground floor, and is one of the most conspicuous objects in the exhibition.

A sideboard of carved oak, with painted panels and carvings, representing game, wine, and fruit, executed in this city, is one of the finest works of the kind we have ever seen.

The statuary occupies the space under the dome. In the centre is the colossal Washington, "in his habit as he lived," by Baron Marochetti. Near it is Kiss's Amazon, a statue of Columbus, one of Webster, a large marble vase, and many other works. Winterhalter's picture of the Royal Family of England hangs from the frame-work of one of the four compartments of the gallery overlooking the centre. Each of these had also stationed in front a figure, in a full suit of armor, from the Tower of London collection.

Several specimens of mosaic work, in wood, occupy a compartment near the centre. On another side are a number of artistic bronzes, and figures in terra cotta. Among the latter is a fire-place and picture-frame of great beauty.

The casts from Thorwaldsen's statues of Our Saviour and the Twelve Apostles are beautifully arranged in an amphitheatre, hung with dark velvet. These noble works of art will alone repay the visitor's outlay. They form a beautiful feature in the exhibition, viewed from any of the numerous points, near and remote, at which they are visible.

Two classic figures some three feet high, modelled in spermaceti, are exhibited by a dealer in that commodity. They present a marble-like and elegant appearance. Resisting the brilliant chances for punning, presented by these articles, we may mention similar plastic works in soap by the perfumers, one of whom has a fountain of Cologne water, dispensing a liberal shower of fragrance over every pocket-handkerchief presented.

A case of stuffed birds, by Mr. Bell, of this city, shows great skill and observation of nature. Near his cases are those of the makers of artificial flowers, to whom similar praise is due.

A case of stag's horns, and articles cut in this material, by Mr. Rohde of Broadway, is very tastefully arranged, and the articles it contains are of the finest description.

The makers of piscatorial paraphernalia display an assortment almost as potent as the reading of Izaak Walton, to tempt the spectator to turn angler. The artificial fish are especially worthy of comment.

Rich carpets, wall-papers, stuffs of silk and satin, woven in colors or heavily embroidered

in gold, hang from the frame-work of the ceiling like banners; and numerous courts contain collections of paintings, though the strength of the exhibition in this department will not, we presume, appear to any extent until the great picture-gallery is completed.

It were unpardonable in the *Literary World* to omit mention of the matters pertaining to the making of books. De la Rue & Co. are out in great force in stationary. Our own dealers in this article challenge attention to the more bulky merits of bank ledgers, while the bookbinders all show an advance in taste and excellence over their annual displays at Castle Garden. Among these cases, that of Mr. Matthews, of Fulton street, deserves especial mention. It contains the splendid folio, Owen Jones's *Alhambra*, in a dress which would challenge the *Alhambra* itself, in its pristine beauty, to equal. Over \$500 was, we understand, paid to the workmen alone employed on the volume.

We have jotted down some of the objects that struck us in our walk around the building at the close of the inauguration exercises. Writing from memory, we have probably omitted much worthy of note which met our eye. When it is remembered that not more than, we should judge, a fifth or a quarter of the screens and courts is yet occupied, some idea may be formed of the noble entertainment and instruction the Crystal Palace will offer during the remainder of this year, and, we trust a longer period, to the people of the United States. There is little doubt but that they will avail themselves of it, and that the turnstiles at the entrances, which mark on a dial the passage of each visitor, are even now making satisfactory record thereof.

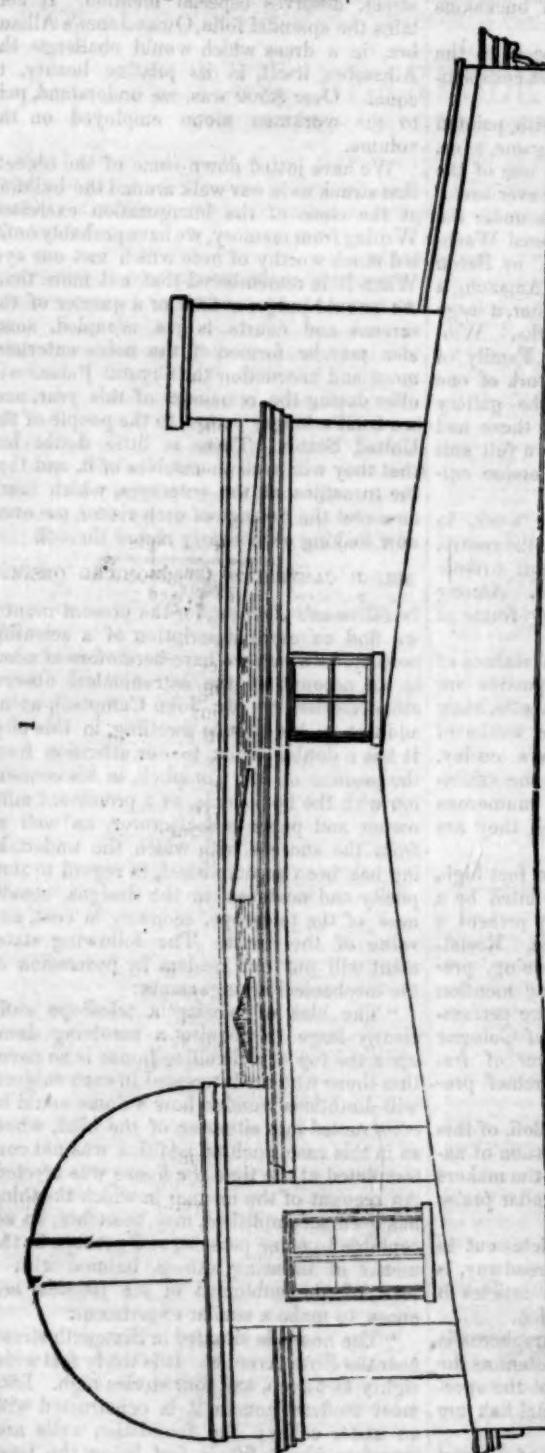
MR. J. CAMPBELL'S ASTRONOMICAL OBSERVATORY.

In *Silliman's Journal*, for the present month, we find an exact description of a scientific novelty, to which we have heretofore alluded, in an account of the astronomical observatory erected by Mr. John Campbell, as an addition to his private dwelling, in this city. It has a double claim to our attention from the position of Mr. Campbell, in his connexion with the book-trade, as a prominent mill-owner and paper manufacturer, as well as from the success with which the undertaking has been accomplished, in regard to simplicity and neatness in the designs, steadiness of the telescope, economy in cost, and value of the result. The following statement will put our readers in possession of the mechanical arrangements:

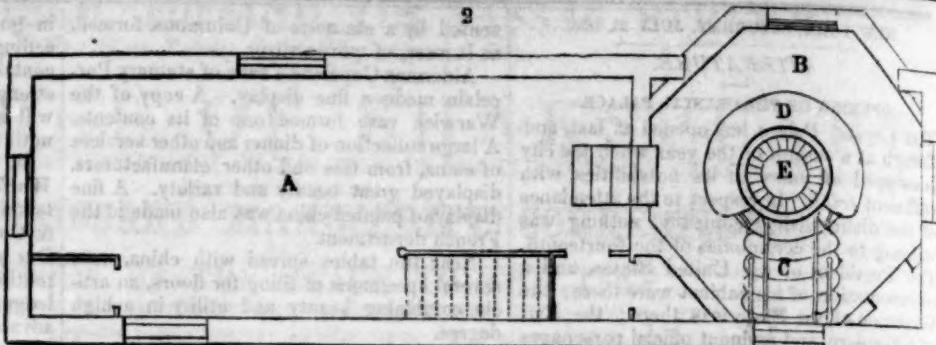
"The idea of placing a telescope sufficiently large to require a revolving dome upon the top of a dwelling-house is so novel, that those who are interested in such subjects will doubtless wonder how a dome could be constructed in a situation of the kind, when, as in this case, such an addition was not contemplated at the time the house was erected. An account of the manner in which the thing has been accomplished, may, therefore, be acceptable to some persons, and perhaps be the means of inducing others, imbued with a love of the sublimest of the physical sciences, to make a similar experiment.

"The house is situated in Sixteenth street, near the Fifth Avenue. It is thirty feet wide, eighty feet deep, and four stories high. Like most modern houses, it is constructed with an under cellar; the foundation walls are, therefore, about fifteen feet below the level of the street.

"The hall is ten feet wide, and the partition wall, which separates this part of the house from the rooms, is of brick, and extends to the roof. This, and the adjoining gable wall were raised, so as to make another story over that part of the house, and a room was thus obtained ten feet wide, and thirty-five feet long. Twelve feet at one end is appropriated for the dome and telescope. Fig. 1. The remainder makes a convenient appendage for books, apparatus, and reading. The Observatory, or equatorial room, is furred off, so as to make an octagon of twelve feet



Appearance of the Dome from the outside.



A, Reading room.—B, Observatory.—C, Observer's seat.—D, Reading Table.—E, Pier of the telescope.

span, to effect which, it was necessary to project a little over the partition wall, on the roof of the main building, which will be easily understood by reference to the plan, fig. 2.

"The octagonal shape is preserved to the height of five feet; it then assumes that of a circle, to correspond with and support the wooden curb, which constitutes the bed-plate of the dome, and upon which that superstructure is made to revolve, at the height of seventy feet from the ground. Three stout beams rest upon the walls across the centre of the octagon, making a base or support for the pedestal of the telescope. The floor is raised three feet above that of the reading-room, care being taken not to permit anything to rest upon, or touch the three beams which sustain the pedestal.

"A door opens into the reading-room, and another upon a platform, over the roof of the other part of the house. Opposite to these doors are windows for light and air. See ground plan, fig. 2.

"It is hardly necessary to say that the foregoing arrangements are altogether local, and on any other site would be varied according to circumstances.

"Upon the bed-plate, before mentioned, is placed a circular rail, twelve feet in diameter inside, three inches wide, and one inch thick,—upon the upper surface is a raised bead or bearing. This rail was cast at the West Point Foundry, in one piece, and turned in a lathe, so that the bearing should not only be a true circle, but also smooth and level.

"The dome is twelve feet in diameter, inside, the base being a counterpart of the curb, which constitutes the bed-plate. It is built in the usual manner, with ribs sawed to the proper circle, of well seasoned pine, that it might be light, and with great care, that it might be an exact hemisphere.

"Two stout ribs cross the dome, equidistant from the centre, and fifteen inches apart, forming the aperture for the telescope; they are five inches wide and three inches thick, and are braced together on one side, with four iron bands, at equal distances, to strengthen the structure, and keep the ribs in their proper positions, as they are what may be termed the *railroad* of the door which closes the aperture. The dome is covered with tin, except the space between the two main ribs; on one side this space is covered with zinc, lapped sufficiently to exclude rain, and secured with screws, that it may be easily removed in case of any derangement of the chain or guide-pulleys, which this zinc covering overlies.

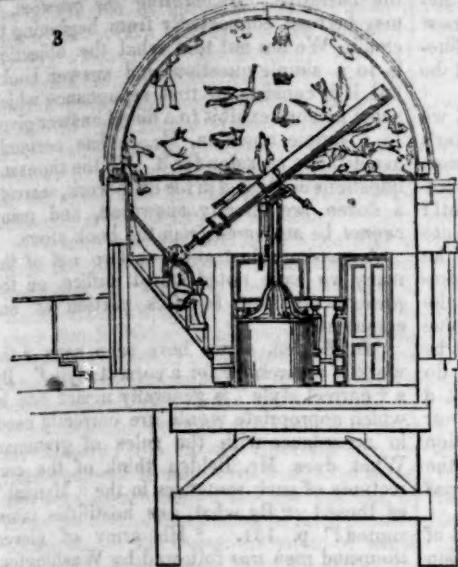
"The aperture extends a little beyond the zenith. It is closed with a sliding door, made to a circle exactly corresponding with the outer surface of the main ribs. The door is secured in the usual way, to exclude rain, and at the same time allow freedom of motion, that it may slip over the zenith to the opposite side. It is covered with tin, and made as light as possible, consistently with the requisite strength.

"The handle, for moving it, is at the horizon, just above the observer's seat, the power being conveyed to a pinion under the upper extremity of the door, near the zenith, by means of a chain passing up the side of one of the main ribs, over guide-pulleys. On the under side of the door is a rack, to fit the pinion.

"An endless screw is introduced, which gives rather a slow motion, but has the merit of great ease, and of sustaining the door at any desired elevation. In order that the aperture may extend a little beyond the zenith, one foot of the door is disconnected, and remains at the horizon, but may be elevated when necessary.

"The machinery for turning the dome is very simple. It revolves upon seven small wheels of four inches diameter, and one inch thick—in which grooves are turned to correspond with the bead on the iron rail. These wheels are fitted into cast iron boxes, and the boxes bedded equidistant in the base before mentioned. The shaft of one of these wheels is made long enough to receive a pinion at one end, and a handle at the other. The pinion fits a rack which encircles the rail, and is concealed from view.

"The handle, and also the operator, move round with the dome, which is accomplished in a very convenient manner, by the peculiar construction of the observer's seat. This is a small flight of stairs, at an angle of elevation, suited

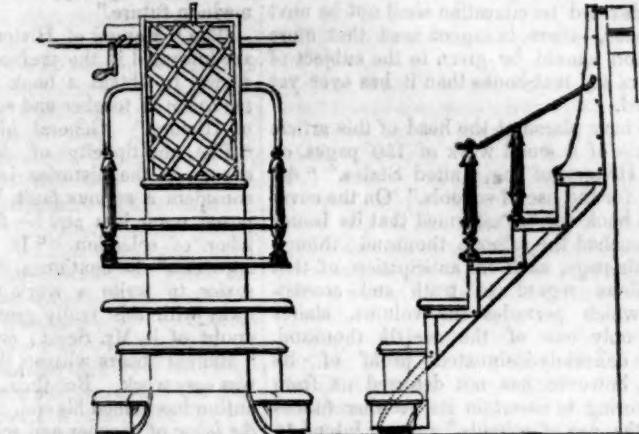


Sectional view of the interior of the Observatory.

to the sweep of the eye-piece, so that each step makes a convenient seat. Fig. 4. The stand is after the Fraunhofer plan, or the equatorial or parallactic style, but is made entirely of cast iron, excepting the circles, which are of brass. The axes are both cast hollow. The declination box and polar axis, being in one piece, as are also the saddle for the tube, and the declination axis.

"The handles for raising the door of the aperture, and for revolving the dome, are near to each other, and can be easily turned by the observer. A circular platform or table is substituted for the ordinary reading steps. It is supported upon legs (with rollers) sufficiently long to give the observer command of the circles and equatorial machinery. The table is secured, at both ends, to the bottom steps of the observer's seat, and consequently revolves with it (see figs. 2 and 3). It will be perceived that, by this arrangement, the aperture, the observer's seat, and the reading-table are so constructed that the moving of one necessarily involves the moving of all, and therefore they always retain their relative and proper positions. The pedestal or pier is simply a drum of boiler iron, three feet in diameter, and the same in height. It stands upon the three beams before mentioned, is lined with brick, like a well, and covered with a smooth, round flag stone, projecting an inch over the iron. The mahogany frame of the telescope, having four feet, with adjusting screws, stands upon the stone. The steadiness of the pier is remarkable, and may be accounted for by the fact that the rock in the vicinity lies near the surface, and, in many cases, has been excavated to a considerable depth, to form the under cellars of the neighboring houses, which, in a great measure, serves to insulate the walls which support the telescope. A map of the Northern Hemisphere, with the figures, is painted upon the concave surface of the dome, and the stars to the fifth magnitude are represented in their proper places.

* The telescope is an achromatic refractor, of eight inches aperture, ten feet six inches focal length, made by Mr. Henry Fitz, of New York. It is furnished with six eye-pieces, of the Huygenian form, magnifying from 60 to 480 times, and has a finder of two inches aperture, and twenty-four inches focal length.



Front and side views of the observer's seat.

"The stand is after the Fraunhofer plan, or the equatorial or parallactic style, but is made entirely of cast iron, excepting the circles, which are of brass. The axes are both cast hollow. The declination box and polar axis, being in one piece, as are also the saddle for the tube, and the declination axis.

"It will be readily perceived that some method of securing the true position of the declination axes is required, and this is effected by means of an eccentric bearing for the end of the axis, to which the circle is attached, and which is readily turned, within the declination box, until the adjustment is found to be correct, and then secured. A clock is attached to the telescope for keeping the object in the field of view, and an important improvement has been made in the manner of communicating the motion to the hour circle. The thread to fit the tangent screw, instead of being cut as formerly, on the edge of the hour circle itself, is cut in the edge of a ring, detached from the hour circle, and merely pressed against it on a conical bearing, by the elasticity of a thin brass plate, which is secured by four screws, that give the requisite friction. This was suggested by the independent motion of the hands of a clock in relation to machinery: an improvement which Lt. Maury has complimented as one of the most important recent adaptations of the instrument, and for which the manufacturer, Mr. Fitz, has an application for a patent at Washington.

"This detached arrangement permits the telescope to be moved in any direction, while in connexion with the clock, and obviates the necessity of clamping and unclamping, thereby greatly diminishing the danger of injury to the instrument."

The economy of the equatorial mounting in Mr. Campbell's instrument, is a point worthy of notice. The massive brass equatorial mountings for an eight-inch refractor, in the old Munich style, cost from ten to fifteen hundred dollars; while the cast iron mountings of Mr. Fitz, which are equally efficient, are furnished at but little more than one-tenth that cost.

"In natural history, God's freedom is shown in the law of necessity. In moral history, God's necessity or providence is shown in man's freedom."—Coleridge's *Table-Talk*.

POPULAR EDUCATION.

SCHOOL BOOKS IN USE—A MANUAL OF HISTORY.* For practical purposes, the question of education for the coming generations of the American people may be considered as settled. Not that all are convinced of the wisdom of such a policy. There are still those who will not subscribe to it; but at present their numbers are few, with small prospect of increase; and the restraints of public opinion deter even this few from openly avowing their sentiments.

This is a great point gained. The friends of the cause cannot fail to see that the most arduous part of their labor is accomplished, when there exists in the community an abiding conviction of the necessity of systematic education, and a willingness to contribute the means for sustaining it. Such a preliminary being settled, there is then leisure for reflection upon the best practical methods for educating youth; and this reflection will not fail to open our eyes to an important field of activity. Although, as we have said, the hardest portion of our labor is accomplished, still, our duties are not at an end. There yet remains something to be done. When the money is contributed, and the rough materials are at hand, for erecting an edifice, before the end can be realized—before our eyes can be greeted with the fair proportions of a beautiful structure—architectural science and the skill of the artisan must be put in requisition. In erecting that intellectual edifice, to which the collective minds of an educated people may be compared, the same rule will hold good. The money and rough materials for this object are ready. Our school-funds are ample; and there is no lack of well-disposed youths willing to enter upon the discipline,—to receive that instruction, which their parents and guardians are anxious to secure for them. But something more is needed. To the rude materials, educational science and art are to be applied. We need the best text-books that can be obtained, for instruction in the various branches of learning. We need to concert measures for securing the employment of the highest learning and talent in the country in the compilation of

* *A Manual of History of the United States, for the Use of Schools.* By David B. Scott, A.M., Principal of Ward School No. 25, New York City. Fifteenth Thousand. New York: C. Shepard & Co.

school-books. We need also some unfailing method for obtaining a supply of skilful teachers. If we expect any adequate return for our money,—if we desire that the time devoted to education shall not be next to wasted,—there is urgent need that more attention should be given to the subject of teachers and text-books than it has ever yet received.

We have placed at the head of this article the title of a small work of 150 pages, on the "History of the United States," "designed for the use of schools." On the cover of the book we are informed that its issues have reached the *fifteenth* thousand; though the title-page, as if in anticipation of that scrupulous regard to truth and consistency which pervades the volume, claims to be only one of the *twelfth* thousand. This delicately-insinuated proof of its merits, however, has not deterred us from endeavoring to ascertain its peculiar fitness "for the use of schools," and we intend to use moderate freedom in speaking of the result of our examination.

The *primum mobile* of the book,—that on which it depends to make it "go," is appended as usual. A dozen or more of the respectable teachers of our city have affixed their names to as many laudatory certificates of its excellence. Correctness of style, orderly arrangement, and adaptation to its purpose, are of course indispensable qualities in a "Manual of History for the Use of Schools." Mr. Belden accordingly certifies that the work in question is "*remarkable* for a correct style." Mr. Kennedy asserts that it is "an exceeding well-arranged and compact epitome. Its style is vigorous and succinct, embracing, in a felicitous manner, fulness and condensation. In short, it is incomparably the best manual I ever saw, and is destined to supersede everything," &c. Mr. Reuck has "used Scott's History in" his "school for six months," and the success he has "met with in *posting scholars up* in the dates and events," has convinced him that "it is the best book of its kind in use, and is peculiarly adapted to our common schools." Mr. Doane says, "I have *carefully examined* a Manual of History, by David B. Scott, and most earnestly commend it to my brother teachers, as being, in my humble judgment, the *very best book* of the kind that I have ever seen. It is invaluable to those who are fitting lads for the Free Academy, and also to those who wish a compilation of *historical facts*, independent of the trash which, in most works, is thrown in to make a large work." Mr. McNally has "thoroughly examined" Mr. Scott's History of the United States. It is the *very best book* for our common schools that has ever been published."

Mr. Scott is not ungrateful for such golden opinions. He "embraces the opportunity of a new edition to express his gratification at the reception the Manual of History has met with from his fellow-teachers." He has, however, taken their "humble judgment of the *very best book*" *cum grano salis*—with a little allowance. He has undertaken to gild refined gold. He has even ventured a few improvements. "These improvements," he tells us, "are principally in the *expansion* of some of the more important events." His *method* of expanding important events we intend to point out hereafter. But we may expect no future expansions. The warrant of his fellow-

teachers ought to avail him something. Accordingly, we are told that the work "is now in a stereotyped form; and there is no likelihood that any important alterations will be made in future."

The "Manual of History" originated, we are informed in the preface, "in the writer's desire to obtain a book that should *lessen the labor* of teacher and scholar in the study of History." General history, Mr. Scott? "The multiplicity of dates and minute events, in the histories in general use," he considers a serious fault, because it had imposed upon him and his fellow-teachers the labor of selection. "It therefore became apparent," he continues, "that it would be easier to write a work which should do away with this really great labor." Not a doubt of it, Mr. Scott; every page of your "Manual" bears witness that its compilation was *easy* work. But then, easy as it was, the author has gained his end. He has "*lessened the labor* of teacher and scholar."

Ours is a labor-saving age. The ideal of paradise, with many, is a state or condition of life exempt from labor. The great man is he who is most successful, at whatever cost or sacrifice, in abridging labor. So senseless has this labor-saving mania become, that it seems wholly indifferent to the constant deterioration of products. Labor is viewed as a curse, which is to be put away and got rid of, rather than as a health-giving action of mind and body, seeking to abridge itself by improved methods and perfect substitutes, only that it may be applied with greater intensity to higher and worthier objects. Hence the plea that its contents may be easily mastered, is deemed a valid excuse for making a worthless book. Undoubtedly there are valuable processes yet to be discovered, not only for abridging labor, but also for perfecting its results. Much remains to be done in methodizing the various subjects of knowledge, and in adapting them to the purposes of education. Every genuine worker in these fields, impressed with the importance and dignity of his task,—be he mechanic, artist, or scholar,—we hail as a benefactor to his race. But we do insist that the merely labor-saving tendency shall not be made the sole and exclusive test of its merits.

We are not disposed to deny that an epitome of United States history, of the size of Mr. Scott's "Manual," was really needed. It is desirable that the knowledge imparted in our public schools should have some degree of completeness and unity, however meagre its details; and the time that can be well spared in these schools for the study of United States history, is probably insufficient to take a scholar through more than a small portion of any one of the abridgments in general use. The exigency, therefore, resolves itself into the simple problem,—a limited time being given, to what manner of synopsis of the facts of United States history can it be most profitably applied? The answer is obvious: to a clear and connected outline of prominent events, with their dates and localities, in catechetical form. But this would not meet the ambitious views of Mr. Scott. He aspires to write what he calls "a condensed Narrative History of the United States." He would "avoid the objection to a simple question and answer-book." The questions in his book, we are told, "have been placed in the body of the page, but do not interrupt

the narrative. By omitting the question, it may be read connectedly from beginning to end." We are not told what the objection is to a simple question and answer book; but if it consists of that repugnance which some persons exhibit to a direct answer given to a simple question, Mr. S. has certainly avoided any occasion for it. Of the thousand questions contained in his little work, scarcely a dozen are directly answered, and many cannot be answered from the book alone.

A passing illustration or two, out of the many we have noted, must suffice, on the present occasion, for this portion of our comments.

Mr. Belden, as we have seen, says "the work is *remarkable* for a correct style." By a "correct style" is generally meant one in which appropriate words are correctly used, in accordance with the rules of grammar. What does Mr. Belden think of the correctness of such sentences in the "Manual" as these? "By what was hostilities interrupted?" p. 131. "His army of eleven thousand men was followed by Washington, who came up with them at Monmouth," p. 71. "Washington, therefore, determined, if possible, to compel them (the British) to evacuate," p. 57. "His (Perry's) ship was attacked by two of the enemy and completely disabled," p. 110. "The other party was literally mowed down by a six-pounder, loaded to the muzzle, and which was discharged on its approach."

We will now cite a few passages in which the author's meaning, if he has any, cannot readily be guessed at. Question. "What happened in the year 1606?" Answer. "In the year 1606, James I. of England, divided that portion of the continent from the 34th to the 45th degree of north latitude," p. 12. We have quoted the whole of the answer given to the question. Does it contain any intelligible idea? Is this a specimen of what Mr. Kennedy calls "embracing, in a felicitous manner, fulness and condensation?" Again: "In the year 1620, the colony was lastingly benefited by the arrival of ninety respectable young women, who were sold as wives to the planters, for one hundred pounds of tobacco, at that time worth seventy-five dollars," p. 18. Mr. Scott means to say that these young women were sold for one hundred pounds of tobacco each; but who would have divined his meaning from anything in his "Manual"? Were it not for the beggarly cheapness of the article involved in the supposition, we should have guessed that he meant one hundred pounds of tobacco for the lot. Once more, speaking of the treaty of Ghent, our author says: "By the terms of this treaty, all the conquests on both sides were restored; but the original cause of the war,—the impressionment of American seamen,—had been done away with by the peace of Europe, which made that measure unnecessary. On this point the treaty was therefore silent," p. 119. Can any one tell what "measure" Mr. Scott alludes to, that was made unnecessary by the peace of Europe? We have not been able to find it.

Mr. Scott appears incapable of stating correctly a matter of fact. In his attempts to describe anything above a simple fact, his blunders are ludicrous. For instance, after the discovery of America by Columbus, the question is—"What prompted him to the discovery?" Answer: "The genius of this great man, fired by the accounts of the wealth of the East, as given by Marco Polo, led him

to believe that, as the earth was a globe, he might discover a passage to the Indies by sailing westward." So it seems that, although Columbus was aware that the earth was a globe, nothing less than his *genius* could lead him thence to infer that a passage to the Indies might be discovered by sailing westward; nay, even his *genius* was unequal to the effort, until it had been "fired by the accounts of the wealth of the east."

We have seen that Mr. Scott's inability to write intelligible English, disqualifies him for conveying to scholars any knowledge of United States history. We now intend to show that he has no such knowledge to convey—no acquaintance with the subject upon which he has attempted to write. We do not complain that he has not treasured up every date and event of American history in his memory; nor do we reproach him for having compiled his book from larger treatises. But we sincerely regret that he has not, by study, reflection, and research, fairly mastered any one of the numerous topics of which he was called to speak. He has fallen into the vulgar error of supposing that a small book, treating only of the salient points of history, could be well compiled with a very small amount of knowledge. Hence, having no commanding view of his subject, it was impossible for him to see what were, in reality, its prominent features; his work is therefore an incorrect outline. Having no thorough knowledge of events, he has been unable to view their mutual relations; from this has arisen incoherence and want of connexion. He has conceived of the historian's task as but little above that of the transcriber's, and hence the "Manual" is an exhibition of the discrepancies and contrarieties of conflicting authorities. If we add that, in transcribing from others, he has indulged the same carelessness that marks his style, his blunders of time, place, and number, will be readily accounted for. Should Mr. Scott contemplate making another school-book, we advise him, first, to learn to write English; secondly, to obtain some knowledge of his subject.

In an outline history, consisting mainly of facts and events, to fail in a correct statement of the facts, and in affixing the proper dates and localities to events, is to fail utterly. How stands it with Mr. Scott's "Manual" in these most important particulars?

At page 6, the scholar is led, by inference, to suppose that Columbus made but *three* voyages to America, instead of *four*. After speaking of the *third*, our author says: "Ignorant of the greatness of the discovery, he gave to the new lands he had discovered the name of the West Indies, and died."

Page 7. "De Leon was slain in a skirmish with the Indians." He was *not* slain, but was mortally wounded with an arrow, and returned to Cuba to die.—(See Bancroft's History.)

Page 8. "Francis Magellan." Magellan's name was *Ferdinand*, not *Francis*. He was a Portuguese, and wrote his name *Fernando*. The Portuguese for Francis is *Fran-cisco*.

Page 12. "De Monts . . . made the first permanent settlement in Canada, and called it Port Royal." De Monts made the first permanent French-settlement in America, but it was *not* in Canada. Port Royal is in Nova Scotia, formerly a part of Acadia, and is now called Annapolis.—(See Hildreth.)

Page 18. "In the same year (1620)

twenty negroes were brought by a Dutch vessel to Jamestown, and sold as slaves. This was the beginning of negro slavery in the *United States*." Were the American colonies called the United States in 1620?

Page 22. "They [the Puritans] had intended to settle on the banks of the Hudson; but their captain, *bribed, as is supposed, by the Dutch*, who had a trading-post at the mouth of the Hudson, carried them further north." Ought an idle tale like this, that the captain of the Mayflower was *bribed by the Dutch* to land the Puritans further north than the Hudson,—a tale, too, for which there is not the slightest foundation in contemporary documents,—to be repeated to youth as a supposed part of United States history?

Page 31. "The history of New Hampshire is, to a great extent, embraced in that of Massachusetts, since they were both *under the same governor up to the time of the Revolution*." How could a man, with his eyes open, make such a blunder as this? Massachusetts and New Hampshire were separated for the last time in 1741. From that period to the Revolution, New Hampshire had two governors of its own. Their names were Benning Wentworth and John Wentworth.

Page 31. "Connecticut was settled in 1635." In a table of the "Settlement of the different States," at p. 148 of the "Manual," the settlement of Connecticut is set down at 1633. Which of the two does the author consider the correct date?

Page 36. "New Jersey was first settled at *Elizabethtown*, in 1664." The Recapitulation at the end of the chapter says the same; but the table, to which we have alluded above (p. 148), gives the settlement of New Jersey at *Bergen*, in 1624. Mr. Scott is right once in three times.

Page 38. "The three lower counties [of Pennsylvania] separated in 1703, and afterwards became the Colony of Delaware." They separated in 1691, and had a separate deputy-governor over them. In 1703, the two colonies agreed to the separation, and the Legislature of Pennsylvania was convened apart. Mr. Scott says the same in the history of Delaware.

Page 39. "Delaware was originally settled by a colony of Swedes, in 1643." Delaware was settled by the Swedes, in 1638, and Mr. Scott says the same in his table, p. 148. In 1643, the Swedes made another settlement on the east side of the Delaware River, in New Jersey. A reliable historian, indeed!

Page 39. "In 1718 William Penn died, and his rights, falling to his heirs, were finally bought by the *United States*, after the revolution, for half a million of dollars." "Bought by the *United States*!" Really, this is nearly equal to the introduction of slavery into the United States, in 1620!

Page 40. "Emigration set towards the south, which led to the settlement of South Carolina, on the Ashley river, in the year 1670. Ten years after, a new town was founded at the junction of the Cooper and Ashley rivers, and named Charleston." This, of course, would make the date of the settlement of Charleston 1680. And yet Mr. Scott, in his table (p. 148), gives the settlement of South Carolina, *at Charleston*, in 1670! The truth is, the first settlement on the Ashley river was called Old Charleston; and by omitting any notice of this fact, Mr. Scott has made his statements a labyrinth of confusion.

Page 54. "In the *same year* (1766) a bill was passed by parliament, imposing a tax on paper, glass, painters' colors, and tea." The bill was introduced into parliament in 1766, by Mr. Townsend, but did not pass until 1767. This error is repeated in the recapitulation.

Page 54. "A detachment of one thousand troops was sent, under Colonel Prescott, to throw up an intrenchment on Bunker's Hill." Nothing is said of any addition to this number of one thousand American troops; and yet the table of "Principal Battles," p. 144, gives the force engaged on the American side as fifteen hundred! The two regiments that came up under Stark, just previous to the action, are nowhere mentioned.

Page 55. "A body of *three thousand* British, commanded by *Lord Howe*, was sent to dislodge the Americans." Immediately afterwards we are told—"Fresh troops arriving under General Clinton, the British made a third attack." Yet the table of "Battles," p. 144, makes the British force engaged only three thousand in all! If Mr. Scott had taken the simple precaution to ascertain whether his "condensed narratives" would go together—whether the parts were consistent with each other, or consistent with his exhibition of the whole, he might have avoided many blunders. Clinton went over from Boston to assist General Howe, but he carried no fresh troops with him.—(See Hildreth.)

There is another blunder here, in connexion with the name of *Lord Howe*, which deserves notice. Mr. Scott has written his history in ignorance that more than one British officer of the name of Howe took a part in the war of the revolution. He seems to have supposed that Admiral *Lord Howe*, commander of the British naval forces, and General Sir William Howe, commander-in-chief of the British army in America, were one and the same person. In speaking of the acts of *General Howe*, he sometimes, as in the present instance, calls him *Lord Howe*, sometimes *General Howe*, and again *Sir William Howe*, without betraying a suspicion on his part that these are not the appropriate titles of the same individual. So important a fact as the rank of General Howe, as commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, is also entirely omitted in Mr. Scott's "Narrative History." Could he have omitted anything more important to a correct understanding of the outlines of the revolutionary war?

Page 60. "The loss of the Americans [in the battle of Long Island] was *thirty-three hundred*, while that of the British was but four hundred." In an official despatch to Congress, written immediately after the battle, Washington states that the American loss, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about *one thousand*. It is true, later accounts say that the American loss was never accurately ascertained. Mr. Scott has given it as estimated by the English at the time; but that it was absurdly exaggerated by them is self-evident. The whole American force engaged was but five thousand! Really, Mr. Kiddie, have you examined the book which you have pronounced so "admirably adapted for the purpose for which it was designed, as a manual for the use of classes?"

Page 63. "In April (1777), Gen. Tryon, with a body of two thousand troops, landed, and burned Fairfield and Norwalk; but pro-

ceeding to Danbury, he was attacked by the militia, and driven back to his shipping, with the loss of three hundred men." Mr. Scott has not thought proper to mention so unimportant a circumstance as the name of the state in which these transactions took place. But we *guess* he means Connecticut; and if so, this version of Tryon's first expedition will probably be new to Connecticut people. Neither Fairfield nor Norwalk was burned until two years after the time above-mentioned, although something was burned at Danbury, which Mr. Scott has omitted to notice. In order, however, to show from what materials our author has concocted this story, and how skilfully he has used them, it may be well to state the facts as they occurred. "In April (1777), General Tryon, with a body of two thousand troops, was despatched against Danbury, in Connecticut, where large stores of provisions were collected for the American army. He landed at Campo Point, between Fairfield and Norwalk; and, proceeding thence to Danbury, set fire to the magazines containing the stores, which were destroyed, with their contents. During his retreat, he was attacked by the militia," &c. On page 76 of the "Manual," we have an account of Tryon's second expedition (in 1779), at which time it is correctly stated that Fairfield and Norwalk were burnt. According to Mr. Scott, therefore, these unfortunate towns were twice destroyed by fire during the war of the revolution. Is this a specimen of what he means in his preface, by "the expansion of some of the more important events?" and is such an expansion, Mr. Reuck, likely to be of great utility in "posing scholars up in the dates and events?"

Page 74. Speaking of the battle of Briar Creek, in Georgia (March 3, 1779), the "Manual" says: "General Ash was sent against them [the British] with two thousand men." This was the American force with which the battle was fought; and we are told (p. 75) that "the American army was almost destroyed." But in the table of "Principal Battles," the total loss of the Americans in the battle of Briar Creek is put at nine hundred! So this "almost" turns out to be less than half. Mr. Scott has evidently taken the number of men sent under General Ash from one source, and the American loss in the battle from another, without observing that the two, when united, rendered the term "almost," in speaking of the loss, inapplicable. The actual number sent under General Ash was but fourteen hundred. If nine hundred of these were lost in the battle, it may, with some truth, be said that "the American army was almost destroyed."

Page 80. "Colonel Sumter taking the field, on the 6th of August attacked three hundred of the enemy at Hanging Rock, nine of whom only escaped." But, in the table of "Battles" (p. 145), it appears that Sumter attacked six hundred, of whom three hundred and ten escaped! Sumter's party, as given in the table, numbered eight hundred. We have seen no other estimate higher than six hundred.

Page 85. "The British lost [at the battle of Cowpens] one hundred in killed, five hundred were made prisoners. Morgan's loss was less than eighty." In the table of "Battles," p. 145, the British loss is put down at six hundred and thirty, the American loss at eighty. The exact American loss was twelve killed, sixty wounded; total, seventy-two. Mr. Scott may possibly plead, in extenuation

of some of the discrepancies between his text and his tables, that he has dealt in round numbers, because they are easily remembered. Possibly this may be some excuse, when urged in relation to the portions of his work intended to be committed to memory. But what can justify the construction of statistical tables, intended only for reference, on the plan of round numbers? The truth is, Mr. Scott and some of his enologists cherish a sort of contempt for "dates and minute events," and have even tried to persuade themselves that such small matters are merely "trash, thrown in to make a large book."

Page 92. "Give the dates of the different posts evacuated by the British." Answer: "In accordance with this definitive settlement, the British army evacuated New York on the 25th of November, and Charleston in December; Savannah had already been given up in July." So, it seems, that to "give the date of a post" is merely to mention the month or the day of the month; the year is of no consequence.

Page 98. "Decatur entered the harbor of Tripoli in a small schooner, boarded the frigate [Philadelphia], and killing several of the Tripolitan crew, threw the rest into the sea." The frigate Philadelphia had on board seven hundred Tripolitans; Decatur had with him in the "small schooner" seventy-six men; after boarding the frigate, Decatur and his crew killed twenty of the enemy; there still remained six hundred and eighty men to be thrown into the sea by less than seventy-six! A hard story, to be sure. Decatur and his men got possession of all the arms on board the frigate, and then drove the enemy into the sea.

Page 107. "On the 5th of May [at the siege of Fort Meigs], General Clay arrived with twelve hundred Kentuckians, and immediately attacked and defeated the British." The "Table of Battles," p. 146, makes the date of the battle May 1st, four days before Clay arrived. The truth is, the British commenced the siege May 1st, General Harrison being in command of the fort. On the 5th, Clay arrived and attacked the besiegers.

Page 111. "On the 11th of November, a body of troops, under General Brown, landed at Williamsburg." The "Table of Battles," p. 146, says the Battle of Williamsburg was fought under General Boyd. The table is correct.

Page 115. "General Izard had left Gen. Macomb at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, with scarce two thousand men." With this force we are left to presume that Macomb fought the battle of Plattsburg. But the "Table of Battles" tells us he had with him at that battle twenty-five hundred men! Hildreth says Izard left Macomb with about three thousand men, and to these were added nearly three thousand more from New York and Vermont!

Page 116. "Landing at North Point, fourteen miles below the city, he [General Ross] was here met by General Stricker, at the head of thirty-five hundred militia, who disputed his progress for an hour and a half, but was at last compelled to retire. In the battle General Ross was slain." The "Table of Battles," p. 146, also makes General Ross the commander at the battle of North Point. The true statement of the facts is this: Gen. Ross was slain early in the morning, in a slight skirmish, in which only two or three hundred men were engaged. The command

then devolved on Colonel Brooke, who continued to move forward. About 4 p.m. of the same day, the battle of North Point commenced, and lasted an hour and a half.

Page 117. "In the month of December, a British fleet, with an army of ten thousand men on board, advanced towards New Orleans through Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain." The British advanced by Lake Borgne. Had they advanced by Lake Pontchartrain, the result might have been very different.—(See Hildreth.)

Page 118. "General Packenham fell mortally wounded." General Packenham was killed on the spot. On page 8, Mr. Scott says "Montezuma was slain in a tumult." Montezuma was wounded while in the hands of Cortez; but, scorning to survive his humiliation, he refused to take nourishment, and thus died of starvation.

Page 120. "Decatur was therefore sent, May, 1815, to the Mediterranean. He there took two Algerine frigates and six hundred prisoners; killed the admiral, and compelled the Dey of Algiers to release the American prisoners, and sign a humiliating treaty of peace. Tunis and Tripoli were humbled in the same manner." Here is another of Mr. Scott's luminous sentences. As the youths in our public schools can derive from it no correct historical information, perhaps it had better be used as a beacon, to warn them against the habit of obscure and careless writing. Was it in the Mediterranean that Decatur compelled the Dey of Algiers to release the American prisoners? "Tunis and Tripoli were humbled in the same manner." And, pray, how was that? By killing and taking them prisoners, of course.

Page 122. "December 28th [1838, in Florida], Major Dade, while marching with a body of men to join General Clinch, was slain with all his corps." And yet it is pretty well known, Mr. Scott, that Ransom Clarke, one of this corps, lived to work his way through the woods, and give an account of the particulars of the massacre, as well as afterwards to visit the city of New York.

Pages 125, 126. "Taylor immediately marched against the enemy, and met them at Palo Alto on the 8th of May." "The next day, the 9th, the Mexicans made a stand at Resaca de la Palma." The table of the "Principal Battles of the Mexican War," p. 147, gives the battle of Palo Alto on the 7th of May, and that of Resaca de la Palma on the 8th. Which are the correct dates, Mr. Scott?

Page 125. "The loss of the Americans in the battle of Palo Alto was nine killed and forty wounded. The Mexican loss was about five hundred." The table of "Principal Battles," p. 147, makes the American loss forty-four, and the Mexican one hundred! Do you really think this work "worthy of general introduction into all our common schools," Mr. Hazeltine?

Page 128. "His [Gen. Taylor's] troops [at Buena Vista] numbered four thousand seven hundred." The table, p. 147, says the force engaged was four thousand seven hundred and fifty—fifty more, it seems, than the General's army contained.

Page 131. "General Worth, after a bloody battle [in storming Molino del Rey and Casa Mata], lost six hundred of his division." The table of "Principal Battles," p. 147, says he lost seven hundred and eighty-nine!

Page 144. In the table of the "Principal Battles of the Revolution," the battle of

Paoli is included, in which eighteen hundred Americans were engaged under General Wayne; but not a word is said of this battle in the body of the work.

Page 146. The table states that one thousand Americans were engaged in the attack on Queenstown Heights, but that the number of American killed, wounded, and prisoners, was nineteen hundred!

But we are weary of detailing blunders. In a hasty perusal of the "Manual of History," it is likely that by far the larger number of its inaccuracies have escaped our attention; and of those we have noticed, only a part have been pointed out in this article. Sufficient, however, we think, has been done to show that its author is radically deficient both in words and ideas; that he cannot write intelligible English, and that he knows nothing of the subject on which he has attempted to write; and hence that his book is worthless for the purposes for which it was designed. Nay, it is worse than worthless; it is really mischievous. Its misteachings are worse than ignorance. It falsifies history. It omits some of the most important facts, and it states for fact that which never happened. Where it is not positively incorrect, it betrays the scholar into wrong inferences. It deludes him into the supposition that he is gaining knowledge, while he is merely storing his memory with unmeaning words and empty phrases. It deceives him in the names of historical personages. It betrays all who rely upon it for the locality of places, the date of events, or the numbers slain or lost in battle. Incompetent as the author has shown himself to the task of digesting the events of our history into a form suited to the wants of youth in the public schools, he still might have done something, and his work would not have been, as it is, a positive nuisance, had he been a correct transcriber; but his habits were too careless even for that.

We wish it to be understood that we have no quarrel, personally, with Mr. Scott. We even think him excusable—knowing, as he must, in his capacity of teacher, the indifferent character of the mass of school-books—we think him excusable for imagining that he could make a book no worse, of its kind, than many others from which he was daily teaching his classes. And it is quite probable he has not fallen below his own standard of excellence. The complacency displayed in his preface proves that in his own opinion, at least, he certainly has not. He evidently thinks himself quite "up to the times," if not a little beyond the mark.

This is the worst aspect of the case. It would be no difficult matter to purge our schools of so paltry a production as this "Manual of History," were it not that there are many other text-books used in them, on other subjects, that are scarcely its superiors. But do the books keep each other in countenance? Is there an offensive and defensive league between them? Between their authors undoubtedly there is. It is no secret that there exists a league or combination of persons in our city, who have it in their power—a power which they frequently exercise—to make any school-book they favor popular, and cause it to be used in the public schools. Perhaps we ought not to complain of this. In the absence of any competent authority to select books for the schools, and in the obvious need there is of such an authority somewhere, it ought not to surprise us if self-constituted tribunals are erected.

We enter no complaint against such a tribunal, "*per se*." In a large community, there are many public interests to be watched over for which there is no provision by statute. Good men, knowing this, cannot avoid associating themselves together for certain objects—political, religious, or educational. In most cases, perhaps, their ends are laudable. Let them look to it that their measures are also good. As no necessity for organization, no service that a political party can perform, can justify it in nominating bad men for public office, so neither can any service to the cause of education justify any man, or number of men, in forcing bad text-books upon our public schools. It must not be. The education of our youth is seen and felt to be an object of the first importance. Vast sums of money are freely contributed for this purpose. We need, we must have, we will have, the best teachers and the best books that money will command, or that talent can produce.

GAVAZZI'S LECTURES.*

THE numerous auditors of the Italian lecturer, Gavazzi, will welcome this collection of his speeches, with the biography which accompanies them. The speaker's career has been adventurous as well as active from its commencement. However opinions may differ as to his claims to be regarded as a great orator, all must agree in applauding his energy and bravery. He is certainly one of the most marked men of the century.

These addresses are occupied almost exclusively with denunciations against the Papacy and Roman Catholic system. One, on Pius IX., deals more with the exciting scenes in which the speaker bore a part, and seemed so superior to the rest, when we heard it, as to make us regret that the Padre had not, in his other discourses, drawn more largely on his personal political experience. Gavazzi's testimony as to the present condition of the Church of Rome in her own city is, however, a valuable contribution to the literature of the controversy which has so long been, and so long will be, waged between Protestant and Roman Catholic. It is true that it is the testimony of a seeder, but it must be remembered that if abuses exist, it is only from seeder that much of our knowledge respecting them can be derived. Those who remain in any religious system, contented with it as it is, are not likely to voluntarily let the world know of its weak points.

LITERATURE, BOOKS OF THE WEEK, ETC.

The Illustrated Record of the Industry of All Nations. Nos. 1 and 2. (G. P. Putnam & Co.)—This publication will consist of twenty-six weekly numbers, and will form, when completed, an illustrated catalogue of the Crystal Palace Exhibition. The numbers issued give satisfactory evidence that the execution of this work will be equal to the high expectations raised respecting it. They contain a section of the present building, with copies of the plans presented by Sir Joseph Paxton, Messrs. Bogardus and Hopkins, and the late A. J. Downing, all inferior to that of the actual building.

The other illustrations of the numbers are of articles on exhibition. The greater part of these are taken from the statuary

* Father Gavazzi's Lectures in New York. Reported in full, by T. C. Leland, Phonographer. Also, the Life of Father Gavazzi, corrected and authorized by himself; together with Reports of his Addresses in Italian, to his countrymen in New York; translated and revised by Mad. Julie de Margueritte. De Witt & Davenport.

porcelain exhibited by Copeland, but we have also drawings of Power's Proserpine, Kiss's Amazon, Thorwaldsen's Ganymede, and a number of articles of ornamented furniture. The letter-press contains a history of the exhibition to the present time, with illustrative matter, drawn from the records of the Industrial Exhibitions in Europe, and an account of various articles on exhibition. The wood-cuts are well executed, and the typographical execution of the work is excellent.

Official Catalogue of the Exhibition of the Industry of All Nations. (G. P. Putnam & Co.)—A closely printed 12mo. of 192 pages, compact and convenient for the hand, and not too closely printed for the eye. It contains a brief description of the articles exhibited, with the names of their contributors, arranged in sections corresponding with those of the exhibition.

The North American Review for July has, among other political and social discussions, an original article, evidently from the pen of an observant traveller, on some of the mutual relations of France, England, and America, in which the affairs of the Continent are subjected to an examination, quite independent of the usual English point of view from which they are generally regarded. Louis Napoleon is very favorably contemplated, the historical fact of his administration being accepted with rather moreunction than seems necessary—while the writer makes something of a new point in applying the non-interference doctrines of Washington and our own government to England as well as to the Continent, in spite of the fraternizing discourses of Secretary Walker, and others. A paper on "Modern Saints, Catholic and Heretic," is worth reading, for its fair presentation of two such opposite contemporaries, in their points of agreement, as the Roman Mrs. Seton and the Protestant Mary Ware. The review of Conybeare's Life and Epistles of St. Paul is a neat and discriminating essay on the character and position of the Apostle, whom it is something of a novelty to study, in his simply personal and historical relations. "Thackeray, as a Novelist," is from the pen of an appreciator, a kindly, genial scholar's view of its subject. The passage quoted from Fielding may be commended to the study of those who ignorantly censured the lecturer for introducing such a loose fellow to his audience of ladies and gentlemen. Schoolcraft's Indian Tribes, Sparks's Correspondence of the Revolution, the Writings of Professor Edwards, are the remaining American topics.

Ranke's Civil Wars and Monarchy in France (Harper & Brothers) is characterized by all the well known ability and skill in historical composition, for which the learned professor is distinguished. The present volume relates the stirring history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and may be regarded as, in brief, a history of France during that period. Such names as those of Catherine de Medici, her sons, the Guises, the great Henri Quatre, Richelieu, and the like, are now, as ever, calculated to excite the deepest emotion in every class of readers; in the hands of Ranke the eventful occurrences of that period lose none of their interest and importance, as belonging, not only to French, but also to universal history. This is the conclusion of the chapter devoted to that awful massacre on St. Bartholomew's Day: "Charles

IX., about eight days after the massacre, caused his brother-in-law, Henry, to be summoned to him in the night. He found him, as he had sprung from his bed, filled with dread at a wild tumult of confused voices, which prevented him from sleeping. Henry himself imagined he heard these sounds; they appeared like distant shrieks and howlings, mingled with the undistinguishable raging of a furious multitude, and with groans and curses, as on the day of the massacre. Messengers were sent into the city to ascertain whether any new tumult had broken out, but the answer returned was, that all was quiet in the city, and that the commotion was in the air. Henry could never recall this incident without a horror that made his hair stand on end."

Old Izaak Walton's *Complete Angler* comes to us, in a new edition, in binding of virgin green, delicate as the freshest May leaf, symbolical of the perennial freshness of heart and purity of feeling of the genuine old poetizing moralist. It is the one undoubtedly accepted English idyll—a piscatory elogue, with fish for machinery, and the mastery of a trout or salmon the great catastrophe of the plot. Walton's friendship for poets and divines has cast the halo of their reputation over him: he is the very model and ideal of a friend, kindly oblivious of defects, sensitive to every budding virtue. This is the charm of the angler, an intense, meek, modest, quiet receptivity of goodness. Hence, while fishermen shelter their ways and doings under the shadow of his name, everybody—boys and virgins—accepts his honesty of heart in the chosen receptacles of the English classics. This edition—the latest—is worthy of the subject both ways: it is an elegantly illustrated library book, and it is a critical, independent fishing book, with original spic notes from the authoritative pen of "Ephemeræ," for fifteen years the angler's "guide, philosopher and friend," in the sporting pages of "Bell's Life." The volume is published in London, by Messrs. Ingram, Cooke & Co., and is for sale in this city, wholesale and retail, by Messrs. Bangs & Brother, in Park Row.

Diogenes Laertius's Lives of the Philosophers, translated, by C. D. Yonge, for Bohn's Classical Library, is a proof of the disposition of the publisher to go out of the line of the ordinary school and "cram" books in his publishing enterprises. This is a book of curious anecdote and speculation, which will well repay that omnivorous personage, the "general reader." The chapter on Diogenes might be cut up, for instance, into a dozen Poor Richard's Almanacs, and furnish, as the name of the great Cynic now does in London, and lately did in New York, volumes of "Punches." Apart from the study of philosophy, the endless flux and refluxes of things, the book is interesting in every page as a study of ancient manners, from the bustling period of the Roman Emperors.

The *Standard Library* of Mr. Bohn now includes Delolme's well-known treatise on the *Constitution of England*, with life and notes by John Macgregor, marking the political changes since the time of the writer, a citizen of Geneva, who first published this work in French, in Holland, in 1770. Bangs & Brother are the American publishers of this and the previous work.

Marie Louise: or, the Opposite Neighbors, by Emilie Carlen. (London: Ingram, Cooke & Co.; New York: Bangs & Co.)—A ple-

sant story of village life in Sweden, the plot turning, as suggested in the title, on an across-the-street acquaintanceship, commencing with the flitting of a well-shaped shadow across a drawn window curtain, and closing, after a number of crosses and mishaps, in a merry wedding. Miss Carlen is sprightly and animated in style, and without drawing very strongly either on her readers' smiles or tears, carries them along pleasantly and satisfactorily, from the beginning to the end of her book. The present, like all the volumes of the series to which it belongs, is well illustrated with wood-cuts, by English artists.

The Way of Peace, by Henry A. Rowland. (M. W. Dodd.)—A well-written, brief treatise on the means by which a religious life is to be attained and persevered in, and by which self-deception on the all-important matter of individual spiritual condition may be avoided. It is well fitted to please those habituated to devotional reading, and to arrest the attention of those who are not.

A new edition, the third, of Mr. Charles Lanman's *Essays for Summer Hours*, has been published by M. W. Dodd. It is dedicated to Mr. Noble, the author of the recent warm-hearted *Life of the artist Cole*.

POETRY.

LYRICS.

SLEEP no more, my true and tender,
Sleep, oh, sleep no more!
Why art thou not awake to render
Solace needed never quite so much before?
I need thee, yet I will not wake thee,
Methinks my very need should shake thee,
Startling thee from out thy slumber,
Ready while my griefs I number,
On them all thy own exhaustless love to
pour—

Sleep, oh, sleep no more!
I have friends,—I saw them lately—
Sleep, oh, sleep no more!
With a mien more proud and stately
Than in any brighter, happier days I wore;
I was cold, I knew them colder,
They were bold, but I was bolder;
I knew, ah, well I knew how slender
Was the love they all could render,—
Then with mighty strokes away my heart did
soar

To thee, oh, sleep no more!
Then I fled into the even,
Sleep, oh, sleep no more!
In the darkening air of heaven
Thousand cloudlets winnowed from its golden
store
Floated, that the angels surely
Loved them, I can say securely,
But from out the skyey palace
Never came a cry of solace,—
Then to thee, to have thee all my grief
deplore
Came I,—sleep no more!

BRING hither the lilies, let me catch the fragrance,—
Open now my window, when that purest
twilight
Comes over the distancee,—leave me now my
leisure,
For the day dies sadly, too sadly for my
peace.
I loved him, I loved him;—forth my heart
went trusting,
Pouring out its rivers, freely, gladly gushing.
I proved him, I proved him;—now my trust
comes backward
Piercing like a sword-blade, grief's poison on
the point.

Sweet lilies, God made you,—whither goes in
dying

All your odorous beauty, all the pure soul of
you!

Thou nameless-hued twilight, whither dost
thou beckon?

Oh, to what dear heaven dost woo thou, now,
my heart?

And shall I lose faith, then? Love is on the
lilies,

Love flies through the twilight, weary, dying
never;

The love that God gave me, flowing as He
wills it,

Wastes not through the ages, eternal as His
own!

S.

THE MODERN TELEMACHUS.

VI.

MUSEUS AFFORDS HIS PUPIL A GLIMPSE INTO THE WORLD OF THOUGHT.

MUSEUS had long possessed, in an eminent degree, the intimate friendship of Percival, whom he admired for the versatility, compass, and scope of mind which rendered him so remarkable as a man, and had tended, without doubt, to lead to the success of those enterprises which, through a long series of years, had built up for him a fortune, now exceeding the requirements of comfort.

Percival resided in one of the most eligible positions of the commercial emporium, a city which is fast rising up into the grandeur which distinguishes those of the highest European class, and whose fleets of vessels are continually seen arriving and departing, freighted with the riches of other lands, and with the products of our own industry and the plenitude of our soil. He received us with the courtesy which betokens old and long-acknowledged friendship, and bade us, in heartfelt terms, a welcome to the hospitalities of his mansion, and a sojourn amidst the bewildering excitements of metropolitan life. The graces and blandness of his manner led me at once into an appreciation of that gentleness of character, which imparts to casual, or incidental friendship, all its attractiveness; while, at the same time, the searching eye, and profound, thoughtful mien, expressed, in their wordless language, the workings of a deep soul within. The vortex of life had been his scene of action; and, knowing this, I was enabled to account for the fact that, although he displayed, in the course of his conversation, the most extensive range of thought, in its outward application to men and things, great distinctiveness as to his knowledge of passing events, acuteness, and penetration in the details of personality of character; yet, with all this, he showed no fondness for abstraction, or the desire of measuring practical knowledge by any ideal standard.

It was this quality to which Museus gave the term of the historical faculty: a quality which enables men to follow events in their consecutive order, connecting them by the law of association, and aided, at the same time, by that susceptibility of imagination which receives and retains all the outward circumstances of life, to encircle themselves by, and hold at command, the great panorama of corporeal existence. In Percival, those talents were prominent which are usually termed keenness and sagacity; qualifications which belong to every mental tactician; and, in their application to commercial pursuits, such as those in which he was so deeply immersed, often pave the way to what should

be termed pecuniary greatness. In arriving at the accomplishment of this aim, however, Percival did not seem to strain after the pomp of life for its own sake, but appeared to have been led on, instinctively, from the elementary principles of commerce, until he found himself so versed in all the details of the vast volume of transpiring events, so absorbed in the calculations of trade and the arithmetic of finance, that his mind at last settled down there as in its peculiar province; and, although the tokens of wealth were gathered around him in profusion, contributed by the hands of art and ingenuity, which he fondly patronized, yet they seemed to be more the result of a favorite mental propensity than that of a lurking desire for the extravagances of mere conventional show. Museus held him up to my view as a most brilliant specimen of the historical and imaginative mind. In our interviews he described to us the vastness of the scale of his pursuits,—not from any ostentatious motive, but rather under the impulse of attracting others to those topics in which he himself was engrossed. And, on such occasions, when natural eloquence animates description, details of the most trite circumstances become invested with all the glow of interest, showing that there is no portion in life to which there is not some peculiar genius found to adapt itself.

He told us of his merchantmen that floated on both oceans, and could furnish the most complete mechanical definitions in all the particulars of their construction and architecture, the properties of buoyancy and solidity in the frame-work, and those studied proportions of curve that add stability to swiftness. The characters and capacities of the officers who governed them, were known to him, and portrayed to us in terms of confidence and esteem. His geographical knowledge was ample; and in his descriptions of the ports to which his vessels sailed, he held out before us a most correctly-drawn historical picture of the world and its races. He indulged anon in representations of ocean life, but chiefly in scenery of waves and sky, distant shores and tempests, omitting all abstract reflection on practical allusions. He could pass from Chili to Japan, and entertain his auditors with the most interesting descriptions of tropical life, without seeming aware of the rare faculty he was master of, in being able to range at will from one extremity of the globe to another.

This ubiquity of the mind appeared at times to have the power of embracing two themes simultaneously; and so discursive were the subjects of Percival's conversation, that I imagined he held several opposite thoughts at one time; but, as Museus taught me, I learned that this apparently dualistic state is nothing more than the electrical celerity of ideas. Much of his wealth was invested in various works of popular enterprise, and he gave the most sanguine coloring to every scheme in which he thus embarked; founding his reliance upon the experiences of commercial life, and building his calculating hopes upon the infallible destiny of our people.

He seemed to have a perfect local knowledge of all towns and villages and portions of country which, in the remotest manner, fell within the circle of his financial interests; and he could enumerate men's names to an extent exceeding all the ordinary natural powers, unaided by mnemonics. This

powerful historic faculty had, in youth, rendered him familiar with all recorded events; but the avocations of life seemed to throw all those in the back-ground, and were recurred to only in hours of recreation.

His whole correspondence passed through his own revision, as the policy which governed his large estate emanated from himself, and received its impulse from one moving soul.

All these complicated interests—interests which had accumulated through a long series of years, with speculation ramifying into speculation, and repeated success expanding the scale of his operations—furnished him with a world of thought in the living history and the tangibilities of life, in the thousand apparitions of human character; but, more than all this, in the construction and carrying out of new commercial plans, and in holding together the best structure which he himself had built.

Although no active politician, yet the largeness of his mind, and devotion to the good of his country, led him to participate in all the movements of national legislation. He knew, studied, and descended upon the characters of men whose wisdom governed the nation; and his sagacious insight into the secondary causes of human action, led him to regard with caution and doubt all the struggles of ambition, so evident in the manœuvres of merely political statesmen. He had lived so long, had witnessed so much, both in other countries and in the rapid growth of his own, whose incomplete history could be studied far in advance, that he might be said to have dwelt, intellectually, in the past, present, and future.

These were the mental qualities of Percival, and we passed much time in his society, listening with zest to his pictures of outward life, his details of events, and his arithmetical views of the peopling of our country. "You will observe," said Museus, "the peculiar tendency of his description and narrations to furnish the history and the outward coloring, unassociated with the problem of life. The whole bias of thought in him is so strongly historical, ranging entirely among men, places, and events, that there is left for it neither time, opportunity, nor disposition for abstraction. Were the circle of his knowledge limited to words, with no bases for thought but mere abstract thought itself, the world of imagination would be as large as it now is; but instead of being composed of facts, it would consist of fancies. His mind seems to roam throughout the world of action, and to be impressed with the whole picture of external nature. It becomes the depository of all living history; and in laying out this kind of knowledge, and in laying up within the stores of his memory this species of wisdom, thus flowing in upon him, he neither seeks for causes in things, nor does he arrive at conclusions, except by the logic of past experience. Percival, unlike men perfectly isolated from others, who dwell within their own world of opinion, thoughts, and suggestions, and who are never swayed by any extraneous influence, moves with the mass in all matters of conventional rule; yet the classification of such a mind is of too high an order to allow itself to become stereotyped, for his vast outward knowledge gives him a certain intellectual sway, found only in the possession of the most active spirits."

"It would well correspond with the Na-

poleonic order of mental creations," I observed; "and do not men of unlimited action and grasp, such as Percival, act less from ambition than the sole instinct of pursuing a purely intellectual bias, with which they are so largely gifted?"

"That," replied Museus, "remains one of the standing enigmas of human character. Much injustice has been done to all heroes of the Napoleonic stamp, both military and civil, by attributing so much to the motives of ambition. Their incipient plane may not have been founded solely on ambition or self-love, but were, more probably, the emanations of a peculiar intellectual bias. Devotedness of pursuit leads to passion, and in this passion the whole individual becomes absorbed. At the same time, it is not merely the intellectual impulse that fashions greatness into what we behold it, but we must lay a peculiar stress upon the circumstances of the age, and its ripeness for the reception of some guiding hand, which, under these circumstances, is as much the led as the leader. So also with the more humble example of the illustrious merchant: his success and his fortunes are not the sole progeny of his own genius, but flow out of the peculiar circumstances among which he has been thrown."

In a most secluded rural locality, at a distance from the great metropolis and all its influences, dwelt Quietus. Separated from the world, and enjoying life in that placid serenity which shuns every excitement, and seems as exempt from it as a lake buried among hills would be from the winds of heaven and the upheaving of its deep waters beneath. Hither Museus led me, in order to place before me another portraiture of man.

In Percival I had observed such a large share of tact, and so much self-possession of demeanor, growing out of his constant intercourse with man, that his equanimity was always well poised; whereas, so sensitive had Quietus grown, from his habits of perpetual retirement, and by those meditative avocations whereby the mind seems entirely drawn away from the great business of life, that he at first could scarce respond to our salutations from mere emotion. In this emotion, the susceptibility of organization was visible, always more or less manifested in those whose inner tranquillity is but a reflex of the outer world around, and whose innocence is progressively expanding into the fulness of mental perfection and imaginative enjoyment.

His abode was the seat of serenity; and the general air of stillness that reigned there exercised the most subduing influence upon all who approached his retreat. A uniformly-tinted greensward presented itself to our view as we approached the domains of the naturalist, in the lap of which arose the obscure edifice which he had occupied for nearly half of a century.

Pleasant reminiscences of times gone by were to be seen in aged trees, with trunks surrendering to corrodng age; and wood-work, so furrowed by weather and disjointed by time, as to fit them for the purposes of painter and poet.

This was a truly picturesque retreat, tranquil, lovely, and attractive, by reason of the poesy that breathed around. His humble domicile had been reared by no architect who looked beyond the wants of unadorned comfort and unassuming simplicity. The orna-

ments of architectural fancy were foreign to his tastes as well as to his wishes; for the nearer he could approach nature in all his requirements, the more fully did he arrive at the accomplishment of his heart's desire. In such a locality the naturalist found his world of thought always accessible; and the silence of nature drew him to herself, and plunged him into those absorbing reflections which this source furnishes in larger and richer measure than every other.

"When such scenes become the province of our thought," remarked Museus, "the study is blended with emotions, and this renders the enjoyment so fascinating. The individual whose life is thus spent, seeking his intellectual world amid themes thus thrown in his way, shows in his whole external being the serenity of thought within, and gathers none of the rugged and time-worn evidences of care with which the struggles of life indent the features of the man of the world."

Quietus received us with a hearty welcome, showed us to a seat beneath an ancient willow that sheltered his home, and pointed to beautiful and sombre shadows thrown around his house by the setting sun. In his face were evident marks of age; the characteristic of his mien was that of deep and earnest reflection. The conventionalities of life to him had become obsolete; and so closely were his thoughts attached to the trees, the flowers, and the insects of nature, that he seemed to have no ear for the history of passing events. Although he could enumerate the names of a thousand species contained in his herbarium, yet he was at a loss to designate such men as were prominent actors among current events, or who figured in the contemporary history of our country. His intellect was expansive, yet he possessed no historic faculty, his sole intellectual employment being to analyse the productions of the vegetable world. He had devoted ten years to the study of the genus *Carex*, an obscure plant found among the grasses; but so absorbed had he become in his favorite pursuit, and so devoted his attachment to this one simple plant, with its almost endless varieties, that he was enabled to detect all the finer distinctions of species, and dwell upon their peculiarities with a degree of interest and intensity unknown to the tyro in botanical lore.

Having studied the *Carex* for a long series of years, written a volume on the characteristics and habits of the plant, he erected upon the whole, as a crown to his work, a system of floral poetry, adding to scientific analysis the expression of his feelings that sprang forth from impasioned moments. Pointing to the mossy trunk of a tree that lay at some distance beyond us, he told us that that had formed one of the objects of his study for more than a score of years; for, during that time he had bent his exclusive attention to the *Cryptogamiae*, and found that by so doing he had gained admission into a world replete with new subjects and new thoughts. His mind having taken this microscopic direction, within the depths of the almost invisible creation he found an inexhaustible treasure of ideas laid open to him, in the department of objective knowledge, and discovered that in all the minute forms of the lower order of vegetation, such as the *Cryptogamiae* furnish, a perfection of design and beauty of formation lay concealed, which vied with the grosser splendors of floral growth. Hence this became his world of thought, where he

concentrated all his study, and but rarely gazed out upon the great theatre of human life.

In our visits, it was not rare to find him stretched out at full length upon the ground, contemplating, with immovable attention, some obscure lichen, found as a parasite on a prostrate limb or attached to some fragment of rock, half buried in the earth.

In these musings among the unnoticed vegetable formations, he seemed estranged from the world around him, and appeared to seek within an unknown sphere other thoughts than those that arose from the contemplation of every-day life. Unlike Percival, who ranged from pole to pole and from continent to continent, in his discourses upon man and the events of passing times, Quietus led us in imagination through the mazes of newly-discovered fungi, so low and obscure to the naked eye, yet so plainly and wonderfully disclosed by the mechanical powers of the microscope, that they seemed to lead us into regions as yet unexplored. So exclusively addicted to ponder upon single subjects, such as these, where little inclination was left for abstraction, he appeared to possess a mind of the analytic order, and we never observed him to draw general conclusions from the data which these minute creations of the vegetable world afforded.

To him it was a matter of indifference who ruled the country, what were the illustrious names that guided the destinies of the republic, or the events that agitated society from one extremity to the other. So vast was the space intervening between the visible transactions of life and the silent though infallible developments progressing within the realms of the *Cryptogamiae*, that no two minds seemed adapted to pass from one mental world to the other. To Percival, the spots of verdant lichen clinging to the eternal rock presented an object barren of all thought, research or discovery; while to Quietus, the gilded paraphernalia of conventional life seemed equally barren of all the intellectual elements which nourished his soul.

"Synthesis," observed Museus, "forms another distinct order of mind, and, I trust, the opportunity may yet be afforded us, to study its peculiar tendencies, belonging, as it does, to the highest classification of human thought. The synthetic bias of intellect is chiefly shown among those who, unwilling to submit to the drudgery of analytical research, and avoiding all the labors of minute and patient investigation into the names of created things, and all their subdivisions, take in at one grasp the whole mechanism of nature, and make their knowledge of one world subservient only to throw light on the probable designs and structure of all worlds. The historic faculty of Percival leaves him no limits to his knowledge of all the circumstances of life, in learning the outward condition of things, and committing the names and qualities of men to memory; in Quietus, we see that the mind may seize upon objects in nature invisible to the naked eye, and descend so far down beneath the outer surface of matter, where each minute formation in the animal or vegetable kingdom incloses another and yet another, until we seem to doubt whether there be any limits to microscopic research.

"Behold, then, how vast is the realm in which thought resides, moves, and enjoys its activity!"

"I would justly conclude that thought had

no limits either in matter or in its pure form."

"It is infinite as the universe itself. In our telescopic researches, we are thrown out upon a boundless ocean, whose shores are never desirous; in our microscopic investigations we descend in among the folds and envelopments of vegetable and animal life, and find the bourne of discovery equally unattainable.

"Next adopt pure reason, enter the world of abstraction, and the forms that rise up before us in ideal contemplation are as manifold as the figures of the kaleidoscope."

"Yet it would seem that Percival is a much more ordinary type than Quietus; and it leads me to ask why so few are given to the study of the secrets of nature in comparison with the multitudes who strive after the enjoyments and the external greatness of life?"

"You find the same characteristic to pervade the tastes of the great mass, and of all who, in the smallest degree, patronize the arts. The prevailing bent of society is to pursue external forms, and to draw from them all the intellectual gratification at which they can ever arrive. The painter succeeds best by his *genre* designs, or outward pictures of life; the poet by his portrayal of objective scenery; the musical composer, by the imitative qualities of sound, aiming at description and external forms of harmony; and the novelist, above all the rest, by the grand phantasmagoria of feudal life, such as have rendered the Waverley tales so eagerly sought after by readers of both hemispheres.

"Hence it is that Percival forms the type of so large a portion of men, and Quietus of so few. That class of men, of whom Percival stands as the representative, may be led on either by the instinctive impulse of that peculiar intellect, or by the desire of acquisition; but in each case, the glory of external life looms in the distance and incites their ambition; whereas, to the race whom Quietus represents, all the visions of conventional greatness are as idle baubles, and the whole aim of life and the most refined enjoyment centre in the creation of thought springing out of the deeper recesses of nature. Should man's history be prolonged to an infinite period of the globe's duration, his mental activity will never cease; and although thought, apparently, comes up again and again under the same forms, yet they are ever receiving some new modification brought about by the explorations of imagination and of science in the realms of ideality and of truth."

Such were the remarks of Museus upon the topics which had reference to the world of thought.

NOTE.—Museus has led his pupil only within the sphere of objective thought, since that is open alike to all minds.

In the higher world of philosophical, poetical, and musical thought, entrance is vouchsafed to those who constitute the highest classification of intellect; and notwithstanding a vast proportion of this tends in an objective direction and becomes Napoleonic, as typified in Percival, yet its greater developments are discoverable only when we find thought created by thought, such as springs from philosophy clothed in reflection, lyric poetry and music exempt from external description.

Quietus serves as an example of that grade of mind which, concentrating all its

energies upon a single point, feels itself inadequate to grasp subjects, foreign to the one pursuit to which it is devoted.

This is more particularly evident in minds of abstract and synthetic tendency, to which the retention of a succession of historical incidents, and the names occurring among those incidents, or even of two consecutive lines of poetry, becomes an exertion of the greatest magnitude, while their powers of general observation in the affairs of universal nature, and the facility they possess of diving into the causes that stir creation, are unlimited.

PROFESSOR FARADAY ON TABLE MOVING.

(From the *London Athenaeum*.)

The following accounts of the method pursued and the results obtained by Professor Faraday, in the investigation of a subject which has taken such strange occupation of the public mind, both here and abroad, has been communicated to our columns by that high scientific authority. The subject was generally opened by Mr. Faraday in the *Times* of Thursday, it being therein intimated that the details were to be reserved for our this day's publication. The communication is of great importance in the present morbid condition of public thought—when, as Prof. Faraday says, the effect produced by the table-turners has, without due inquiry, been referred to electricity, to magnetism, to attraction, to some unknown or hitherto unrecognised physical power, able to affect inanimate bodies, to the revolutions of the earth, and even to diabolical or supernatural agency; and we are tempted to extract a passage from Mr. Faraday's letter to the *Times*, which we think well worth adding to the experimental particulars and the commentaries with which he has favored ourselves:

"I have been," says the Professor, "greatly startled by the revelation which this purely physical subject has made of the condition of the public mind. No doubt there are many persons who have formed a right judgment or used a cautious reserve—for I know several such, and public communications have shown it to be so; but their number is almost as nothing to the great body who have believed and borne testimony, as I think, in the cause of error. I do not here refer to the distinction of those who agree with me and those who differ. By the great body, I mean such as reject all consideration of the equality of cause and effect—who refer the results to electricity and magnetism, yet know nothing of the laws of these forces—or to attraction, yet show no phenomena of pure attractive power—or to the rotation of the earth, as if the earth revolved round the leg of a table—or to some unrecognised physical force, without inquiring whether the known forces are not sufficient—or who even refer them to diabolical or supernatural agency, rather than suspend their judgment, or acknowledge to themselves that they are not learned enough in these matters to decide on the nature of the action. I think the system of education that could leave the mental condition of the public body in the state in which this subject has found it must have been greatly deficient in some very important principles."

EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION OF TABLE-MOVING.

The object which I had in view in this inquiry was not to satisfy myself, for my conclusion had been formed already on the evi-

dence of those who had turned tables, but that I might be enabled to give a strong opinion, founded on facts, to the many who applied to me for it. Yet, the proof which I sought for, and the method followed in the inquiry, were precisely of the same nature as those which I should adopt in any other physical investigation. The parties with whom I have worked were very honorable, very clear in their intentions, successful table-movers, very desirous of succeeding in establishing the existence of a peculiar power, thoroughly candid, and very effectual. It is with me a clear point that the table moves when the parties, though they strongly wish it, do not intend, and do not believe that they move it by ordinary mechanical power. They say, the table draws their hands, it moves first, and they have to follow it—that sometimes it even moves from under their hands. With some the table will move to the right or left according as they wish or will it—with others the direction of the first motion is uncertain—but all agree that the table moves the hands and not the hands the table. Though I believe the parties do not intend to move the table, but obtain the result by a quasi involuntary action; still I had no doubt of the influence of expectation upon their minds, and through that upon the success or failure of their efforts. The first point, therefore, was to remove all objections due to expectation, having relation to the substances which I might desire to use:—so, plates of the most different bodies, electrically speaking,—namely, sand-paper, mill-board, glue, glass, moist clay, tinfoil, cardboard, gutta-percha, vulcanized rubber, wood, &c.—were made into a bundle and placed on a table under the hands of a turner. The table turned. Other bundles of other plates were submitted to different persons at other times—and the tables turned. Henceforth, therefore, these substances may be used in the construction of apparatus. Neither during their use nor at any other times could the slightest trace of electrical or magnetic effect be obtained. At the same trials it was readily ascertained that one person could produce the effect; and that the motion was not necessarily circular, but might be in a straight line. No form of experiment or mode of observation that I could devise gave me the slightest indication of any peculiar natural force. No attractions, or repulsions, or signs of tangential power, appeared, nor anything which could be referred to other than the mere mechanical pressure exerted inadvertently by the turner. I therefore proceeded to analyse this pressure, or that part of it exerted in a horizontal direction—doing so, in the first instance, unawares to the party. A soft cement, consisting of wax and turpentine, or wax and pomatum, was prepared. Four or five pieces of smooth, slippery card-board were attached, one over the other, by little pellets of the cement, and the lower of these to a piece of sand-paper resting on the table—the edges of these sheets overlapped slightly—and on the under surface a pencil line was drawn over the laps, so as to indicate position. The upper card-board was larger than the rest, so as to cover the whole from sight. Then the table-turner placed the hands upon the upper card, and we waited for the result. Now, the cement was strong enough to offer considerable resistance to mechanical motion, and also to retain the cards in any new position which they might acquire—and yet weak enough

to give way slowly to a continued force. When at last the table, cards, and hands, all moved to the left together, and so a true result was obtained, I took up the pack. On examination, it was easy to see by the displacement of the parts of the line, that the hand had moved farther than the table, and that the latter had lagged behind; that the hand, in fact, had pushed the upper card to the left, and that the under cards and the table had followed and been dragged by it. In other similar cases, when the table had not moved, still the upper card was found to have moved, showing that the hand had carried it in the expected direction. It was evident, therefore, that the table had not drawn the hand and person round, nor had it moved simultaneously with the hand. The hand had left all things under it behind, and the table evidently tended continually to keep the hand back.

"The next step was to arrange an index, which should show whether the table moved first, or the hand moved before the table, or both moved or remained at rest together. At first this was done by placing an upright pin fixed on a leaden foot upon the table, and using that as the fulcrum of a light lever. The latter was made of a slip of fool-cap paper, and the short arm, about a quarter of an inch in length, was attached to a pin proceeding from the edge of a slipping card placed on the table, and prepared to receive the hands of the table-turner. The other arm, of 11 1-2 inches long, served for the index of motion. A coin laid on the table marked the normal position of the card and index. At first the slipping card was attached to the table by the soft cement, and the index was either screened from the turner, or the latter looked away: then, before the table moved the index showed that the hand was giving a resultant pressure in the expected direction. The effect was never carried far enough to move the table, for the motion of the index corrected the judgment of the experimenter, who became aware that, inadvertently, a side-force had been exerted. The card was now set free from the table, i.e., the cement was removed. This, of course, could not interfere with any of the results expected by the table-turner, for both the bundle of plates spoken of, and single cards, had been freely moved on the tables before; but now that the index was there, witnessing to the eye, and through it to the mind of the table-turner, not the slightest tendency to motion, either of the card or of the table, occurred. Indeed, whether the card was left free, or attached to the table, all motion, or tendency to motion, was gone. In one particular case, there was relative motion between the table and the hand. I believe that the hands moved in one direction; the table-turner was persuaded that the table moved from under the hand in the other direction. A gauge, standing upon the floor, and pointing to the table, was therefore set up on that and some future occasions; and then, neither motion of the hand nor of the table occurred.

"A more perfect lever apparatus was then constructed in the following manner:—Two thin boards, 9 1-2 inches by 7 inches, were provided; a board, 9 by 5 inches, was glued to the middle of the underside of one of these (to be called the table-board), so as to raise the edges free from the table: being placed on the table, near and parallel to its side, an upright pin was fixed close to the

further edge of the board, at the middle, to serve as the fulcrum for the indicating lever. Then, four glass rods, 7 inches long and 1-4 in diameter, were placed as the rollers on different parts of this table-board, and the upward board placed on them; the rods permitted any required amount of pressure on the boards, with a free motion of the upper on the lower to the right and left. At the part corresponding to the pin, in the lower board, a piece was cut out of the upper board, and a pin attached there which, being bent downward, entered the hole in the end of the short arm of the index lever; this part of the lever was card-board; the indicating prolongation was a straight hay-stalk, 15 inches long. In order to restrain the motion of the upper board on the lower, two vulcanized rubber rings were passed round both, at the parts not resting on the table; these, while they tied the boards together, acted also as springs, and while they allowed the first feeblest tendency to motion to be seen by the index, exerted, before the upper board had moved a quarter of an inch, sufficient power in pulling the upper board back from either side, to resist a strong lateral action of the hand. All being thus arranged, except that the lever was away—the two boards were tied together with string, running parallel to the vulcanized rubber springs, so as to be immovable in relation to each other. They were then placed on the table, and a table turner sat down to them; the table very shortly moved in due order, showing that the apparatus offered no impediment to the action. A like apparatus, with metal rollers, produced the same result under the hands of another person. The index was now put into its place, and the string loosened, so that the springs should come into play. It was soon seen, with the party that could will the motion in either direction (from whom the index was purposely hidden), that the hands were gradually creeping up in the direction before agreed upon, though the party certainly thought they were pressing downward only. When shown that it was so, they were truly surprised; but when they lifted up their hands, and immediately saw the index return to its normal position, they were convinced. When they looked at the index, and could see for themselves whether they were pressing truly downwards, or obliquely, so as to produce a resultant in the right or left-handed direction, then such an effect never took place. Several tried, for a long while together, and with the best will in the world; but no motion, right or left, of the table, or hand, or anything else occurred. [A passage from a letter in the *Times* is worth reproducing here, as illustrating in other words the value of this method of self-conviction: 'The result,' says Prof. Faraday, 'was, that when the parties saw the index, it remained very steady; when it was hidden from them, or they looked away from it, it wavered about, though they believed that they always pressed directly downwards; and when the table did not move, there was still a resultant of hand force in the direction in which it was wished the table should move, which, however, was exercised quite unwittingly by the party operating. This resultant it is, which, in the course of the waiting-time, while the fingers and hands become stiff, numb, and insensible by continued pressure, grows up to an amount sufficient to move the table or the

substances pressed upon. But the most valuable effect of this test apparatus (which was afterwards made more perfect and independent of the table), is the corrective power it possesses over the mind of the table-turner. As soon as the index is placed before the most earnest, and they perceive—as in my presence they have always done—that it tells truly whether they are pressing downwards or obliquely, then all effects of table-turning cease, even though the parties persevere, earnestly desiring motion, until they become weary and worn out. No prompting or checking of the hands is needed—the power is gone; and this only because the parties are made conscious of what they are really doing mechanically, and so are unable unwittingly to deceive themselves. I know that some may say that it is the cardboard next the fingers which moves first, and that it both drags the table, and also the table-turner with it. All I have to reply is, that the cardboard may in practice be reduced to a thin sheet of paper, weighing only a few grains, or to a piece of goldbeaters' skin, or even the end of the lever, and (in principle) to the very cuticle of the fingers itself. Then the results that follow are too absurd to be admitted; the table becomes an incumbrance, and a person holding out the fingers in the air, either naked or tipped with goldbeaters' skin or cardboard, ought to be drawn about the room, &c.; but I refrain from considering imaginary yet consequent results which have nothing philosophical or real in them.]

"Another form of index was applied thus: A circular hole was cut in the middle of the upper board, and a piece of cartridge paper pasted under it on the lower surface of the board; a thin slice of cork was fixed on the upper surface of the lower board, corresponding to the cartridge paper; the interval between them might be a quarter of an inch or less. A needle was fixed into the end of one of the index haystalks, and when all was in place the needle-point was passed through the cartridge paper and pressed slightly into the cork beneath, so as to stand upright; then any motion of the hand, or hand-board, was instantly rendered evident by the deflection of the perpendicular hay-stalk to the right or left.

"I think the apparatus I have described may be useful to many who really wish to know the truth of nature, and would prefer that truth to a mistaken conclusion: desired, perhaps, only because it seems to be new or strange. Persons do not know how difficult it is to press directly downwards, or in any given direction against a fixed obstacle: or even to know only whether they are doing so or not; unless they have some indicator, which, by visible motion or otherwise, shall instruct them; and this is more especially the case when the muscles of the finger and hand have been cramped and rendered either tingling, or insensible, or cold, by long-continued pressure. If a finger be pressed constantly into the corner of a window-frame for ten minutes or more, and then, continuing the pressure, the mind be directed to judge whether the force at a given moment is all horizontal, or all downwards, or how much is in one direction and how much in the other, it will find great difficulty in deciding; and will at last become altogether uncertain—at least, such is my case. I know that a similar result occurs with others; for I have had two boards arranged, separated, not by rollers,

but by plugs of vulcanized rubber, and with the vertical index; when a person, with his hands on the upper board, is requested to press only downwards, and the index is hidden from his sight, it moves to the right, to the left, to him and from him, and in all horizontal directions; so utterly unable is he strictly to fulfil his intention without a visible and correcting indicator. Now, such is the use of the instrument with the horizontal index and rollers: the mind is instructed, and the involuntary or *quasi* involuntary motion is checked in the commencement, and therefore never rises up to the degree needful to move the table, or even permanently the index itself. No one can suppose that looking at the index can in any way interfere with the transfer of electricity or any other power from the hand to the board under it or to the table. If the board tends to move, it may do so—the index does not confine it; and if the table tends to move, there is no reason why it should not. If both were influenced by any power to move together, they may do so—as they did, indeed, when the apparatus was tied, and the mind and muscle left unwatched and unchecked.

"I must bring this long description to a close. I am a little ashamed of it, for I think, in the present age, and in this part of the world, it ought not to have been required. Nevertheless, I hope it may be useful. There are many whom I do not expect to convince; but I may be allowed to say, that I cannot undertake to answer such objections as may be made. I state my own convictions as an experimental philosopher, and I find it no more necessary to enter into controversy on this point than any other in science, as the nature of matter, or inertia, or the magnetization of light, on which I may differ from others. The world will decide sooner or later, in all such cases, and I have no doubt, very soon and correctly in the present instance. Those who may wish to see the particular construction of the test apparatus which I have employed, may have the opportunity at Mr. Newman's, No. 123 Regent street. Further, I may say, I have sought earnestly for cases of lifting by attraction, and indications of attraction in any form, but have gained no traces of such effects. Finally, I beg to direct attention to the discourse delivered by Dr. Carpenter, at the Royal Institution, on the 12th of March, 1852, entitled: 'On the Influence of Suggestion in modifying and directing Muscular Movement, independently of Volition'; which, especially in the latter part, should be considered in reference to table-moving by all who are interested in the subject.

"M. FARADAY.

"ROYAL INSTITUTION, JUNE 27, 1853."

MR. FRANKENSTEIN'S PANORAMA OF NIAGARA. This exhibition, which has just opened at the Hope Chapel, in Broadway, deserves to be considered a novelty, even amongst the crowd of panoramas, of every region under heaven, with which our galleries have been visited. It is a novelty, from its fine artistical execution—from the thorough, conscientious workmanship expended upon its subject, during a period of nine years, which have contributed to its numerous series of views; and from the unfailing good taste and judgment which have governed the selection. One hour is spent in an uninterrupted passage before the eye, of the scenes and points of view of the great "lion." We see Niagara above the falls, and

far below, hastening to its work, and after its work is accomplished. We have it sideways and lengthways: we look down upon it; we look up at it: we are before it, behind it, in it: in the magnificently-curtained chamber under Table Rock: curiously inspecting its gorgeous ring of rainbow in the cave of the winds; impertinently thrusting ourselves into its spray on the deck of the "Maid of the Mist;" tempting its rapids among the eddies above; skimming its whirlpool far below. We are there in sunlight and moonlight, in summer and winter, catching its accidental effects of mist and light, alternately awed by its sublimity and fascinated by its beauty. Mr. Frankenstein, one of the artists whose reputation has grown up of late years in the west, is an enthusiast for Niagara, and has sacredly devoted to its miracles the consecrated time demanded by Horace for the growth of a poem. His work is now complete, and in the extent and character of its winter scenes, altogether unique. The combinations and effects of ice will strike the summer visitant to Niagara as altogether new and startling. The accumulation of the screen of icebergs of frozen mist, the grotesque burden of the trees, the ice-bridge, appropriately close the last stage of the panorama, awakening the attention after its busy survey of every available point of summer interest. Mr. Kyle, the sketcher of the Mississippi, has added his taste and science to the work in the painting of the panorama, the skilful effects of which, both in its exhibitions of grandeur and beauty, were frequently applauded by the large and discriminating audience at its opening night.

Hope Chapel is well chosen for the exhibition. It is convenient in location, the visitors are comfortably seated, and the platform is admirably arranged for the sight.

We commend the enterprise to all who would be pleasantly entertained, as a specialty of this sight-seeing season.

The succession of lectures is kept up in England in rapidity and variety. Of a new course a London daily says:

"Dr. Arnold Ruge, who is well known as a leader of that extremely Liberal party in German philosophy which may best be represented by the name of Ludwig Feuerbach, commenced yesterday afternoon, at Willis's rooms, a series of lectures on the literature of his own country. The subject of his first lecture was broad enough, taking in the whole progress of German literature, from the days of Lessing to those of Strauss and Feuerbach. This progress is divided by Dr. Ruge into four periods—that of enlightenment (*Aufklärung*) represented by Lessing; the classic period, headed by Kant, and so called because it comprises the classical names in German *belles lettres*; the romantic period, or that of Fichte, so called on account of the aberrations of the disciples, not on account of the principles of the master; and, lastly, the philosophic period which is symbolized by Hegel, and which stands as the last form of Protestant thought. It is needless to say that Dr. Ruge's feelings are strong against Catholics, reactionaries, and Romantik, and that his sympathies are enlisted in what is commonly called the 'left hand side' of Hegelism. His plan is unexceptionable, but his lecture would be improved by condensation, and by a determination to dwell on a few characteristic persons rather than to scatter forth a great number of names that scarcely represent a principle. His second lecture, which is announced for Monday next, will treat more exclusively of philosophy."

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